



# Public Education in Alaska



A Totem Pole— the Southeastern Alaskan's Family Tree. Note the height of the pole as compared to that of an individual.

## FOREWORD

AMONG areas governed by the United States, Alaska is unique in a number of ways; one of special interest to education officials and students is concerned with the maintenance within its borders of two publicly supported school systems—one by the Federal Government and one by the Territory. It was chiefly in the interest of the former that the author of this bulletin visited the Territory in the spring of 1931 to study and report on its condition and progress. For a period of more than 40 years preceding 1931 the Bureau of Education, now the Office of Education, was responsible for the education of the natives of Alaska. During 1930 plans were under consideration by the Commissioner of Education for certain reorganizations and adjustments in the school system, particularly curricular adjustments, and a personal visit of the staff member directly in charge was, therefore, arranged. Before their consummation, however, transfer of administrative functions concerned with the native schools was recommended by the Commissioner of Education and effected by the Secretary of the Interior.

Administration of the schools under the auspices of the Office of Indian Affairs is now well under way. The time seems opportune, therefore, for this brief review of the initiation and development of the Federal school system under the direction of the Bureau of Education.

The chief sources drawn upon in the compilation of the report are personal observation and a series of reports of the Commissioner of Educa-



tion on education in Alaska and the development of the reindeer industry in that Territory. The author visited a large number of native schools, widely distributed throughout the Territory, by railroad, plane, and boat. Reports of the Commissioner of Education were consulted dating from 1900 and available in the library of the Office of Education. These documents, containing detailed accounts of the establishment and development of village and community schools in Alaska under almost prohibitive conditions, constitute a valuable contribution to the history of education in the United States.

As the report of a unique development in education in the United States, this bulletin should be of interest to educators in general, but especially to that growing group of students engaged in scientific research and experimentation in the specialized problems, racial and educational, of native and minority groups the world over.

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## THE COUNTRY AND THE PEOPLE



### INTRODUCTION

ALASKA is the oldest, in point of annexation, and by far the largest of the noncontiguous areas governed by the United States. It is also the only one which is "continental" in location and chiefly noninsular in character, although many small islands are adjacent to its extensive and deeply indented coast line. In civil status it is one of our two Territories, though many years, practically 45, elapsed after its purchase before it achieved territorial status. Hawaii, on the other hand, was made a territory almost immediately following annexation.

In climate, topography, type and distribution of population and in social and economic development it differs rather widely from the 48 States of continental United States and our other outlying parts. However, in Alaska, as elsewhere in our country, education—free, public, and universal—is the accepted policy. The Federal Government provides schools for the natives; the Territorial Government for the white population.

Since 1886, following the transfer of responsibility for the government to the Department of the Interior and for education to the Bureau of Education, consistent efforts have been under way, generally under exceedingly difficult conditions, to assist in the social and economic adjustment of the native people, to instill American ideals of free and universal education, and to promote assimilation of native groups into modern civilization through education, while at the same time preserving original racial cultures and traditional character values.

## HISTORY AND RESOURCES

ALASKA was the first of our several noncontiguous parts to become a part of the United States. It has an interesting early history preceding our own Revolutionary period, and beginning with its discovery by the Russians in 1711. Peter Popoff, a Russian who sailed from Siberia and explored what is now known as the Bering Strait, was the first European to find it. He took back to Europe rumors that a continent existed immediately on the other side of Asia. Peter the Great some years later sent Bering, an intrepid Russian explorer of Danish descent, then a member of the Russian Navy, to investigate the rumors. Bering, like so many other early voyagers, was interested in finding a northwest passage to India and China by way of the Arctic. He sailed from Siberia, through the strait which now bears his name, on three exploratory voyages. On the first two he found nothing new, but on the third voyage, in 1771, he saw the American continent, discovered the Shumigan Islands, and decided to proceed back to Siberia by way of the chain of Aleutian Islands. Bering died on the way back. His sailors, however, returned to the mainland with news of the existence of Alaska and its richness in rare furs. During the years succeeding this event the Russians made many explorations to Alaska, establishing on such expeditions a number of settlements and trading stations through which they carried on an extensive business in the rare furs with which Alaska abounded and which were highly prized by people of wealth and fashion during those prosperous days of the great Russian Empire.

Throughout the years of Russian occupation, especially the early years, right to the Territory was disputed many times by the



Spanish and English who made occasional explorations along the Alaskan coast. Captain Cook, sailing from Plymouth, England, surveyed the coast in 1776 and established the fact that there was no land connection between Asia and America. His name is associated with early discoveries in both our Territories, for it was following this exploratory trip that he sailed south from Alaska to find the Hawaiian Islands and to meet his death there at the hands of the natives.

Early in the eighteenth century the Russians consummated treaties with Great Britain by which they were ceded the Territory of Alaska, about as we now know it. Alexander Baranof, "a great builder and promoter of colonies", according to Clark, came to Alaska around 1790. He encouraged Russian missionaries to come to the new territory and to build churches and schools wherever possible. In addition, he himself undertook many extensive developments. The particular aim of Russia was the development of the fur trade. Baranof, however, developed, other industries. He built important shipbuilding ways from which he launched 14 vessels during his stay in Alaska. Baranof's ships and men carried on extensive trading in the Pacific, frequently visiting China and Hawaii. Ice was shipped to California in large quantities; mining was carried on to some extent and at least one important foundry was established, products from which, including, it is said, the mission bells of El Camina Real, were shipped to California and probably to even more distant points.

Baranof founded Sitka in 1799 and made it the capital site from which he ruled Russian America as Alaska was then called. Under his leadership and that of his successors, the Russians developed the fishing and fur resources of Alaska extensively, colonized it to a considerable extent, established missions and churches of the orthodox Russian religion, and continued in control and occupation until it was purchased by the United States.

The United States bought Alaska after negotiations extending over a long period of years. The sale was consummated at

<sup>1</sup> Clark, Henry W. History of Alaska. New York, The Macmillan Co., 1930. 208 p.

4 o'clock in the morning of March 30, 1867, at Washington, between William H. Seward, Secretary of State, and Baron Stoeckl, Russian ambassador. The price paid was \$7,200,000, an amount estimated at about 2 cents an acre for the vast territory involved. Formal possession of the territory was taken in ceremonies at Sitka on October 18 of that year.

Alaska was so little known by the people of the United States at the time of its purchase that even the modest sum paid for it was considered an exorbitant and unnecessary expenditure by opponents of Seward's "expansion" policy. The Territory was widely characterized as "Seward's folly", "Seward's ice box", and in other and similarly unflattering terms. Its vast area, comprising practically one-sixth of the total land area of the United States, its mineral resources, its coast line of 26,000 miles, more than twice as long as that of all the rest of continental United States, the beauty and variety of its scenery, were then entirely unknown. Quite naturally, in view of its isolation, its prospective wealth and importance could not at that time be anticipated.

The years following the purchase of Alaska by the United States were, according to most historians, years of stagnation and neglect. Many are inclined to draw unfavorable comparisons between Russian rule immediately preceding purchase, and American rule which followed. According to Clark, "the United States was still busy at this time settling her own western territory." Very little was done during the first 30 years of American settlement to provide suitable government or to develop the resources of the Territory. As might have been anticipated in so remote and isolated an area, the history of the period is one of ruthlessness and corruption. It was of the Alaska of this time that Kipling wrote "and there's never a law of God or man runs north of 53." Other well-known authors—Jack London, Mark Twain, Joaquin Miller—also found in the Alaska of the period a setting for romantic and thrilling tales of hazard and adventure. It was not until 1884 through the establishment of civil government that even approximately adequate provision was made for law and order and that orderly development of Alaska's rich resources could proceed.



The dramatic history of the District of Alaska, as it was then known, from the days when gold was discovered during the late 80's in Juneau, Nome, the Yukon, and other sections; during the Copper River boom, and later when the Klondike stampede took place, is of world-wide knowledge and need only be referred to here. Naturally the stirring events of those years colored the succeeding history of the Territory and left their impress upon its present population and development. The successive discoveries of rich mineral deposits distributed practically throughout the Territory, especially gold in both placer and quartz form, led to sudden, quick development of thriving communities in hitherto wholly unpromising places. No one knew—but all were expectant—where the next boom would be. Many of the early discoveries were followed by permanent developments and led to permanent settlements. In others the promising prospects failed to materialize and communities were abandoned as swiftly as they developed. Disappointed prospectors generally sought and sometimes found fortunes in other localities. Too often, however, these too, proved disappointing, so far as permanent and abundant wealth was concerned. Communities again sprang up overnight and were as quickly abandoned. Thus history repeated itself again and again in many boom communities.

Where permanent deposits were opened up, even though not as fabulous in value as original stampedeers expected, the more tenacious settlers remained, and with the passing of the peak of the boom, development on a more stabilized basis set in. Many of those who came expecting to find wealth awaiting them, while temporarily disappointed, eventually found in Alaska a congenial place where they could make a comfortable living and establish permanent homes. Alaska's rich mineral resources—gold and copper supplemented by almost equally valuable deposits of coal and oil—responsible for its boom-time mushroom growth, are responsible in large part also for its permanent growth and substantial development. Railroads, auto roads, business, a variety of remunerative industries, schools, and good government, followed the development of permanent mineral resources and are now as commonplace and integral a part of life in Alaska as elsewhere. The World War and the depression have affected the



economic situation but probably neither more nor less than other parts of the United States.

Steady progress has been made, particularly since the World War, in developing nonmineral resources. The fishing industry and the fur-seal industry, probably more profitable if less colorful than mining, have been developed as permanent sources of income. Canning is highly developed along the coast, particularly along the southern and southeastern coasts where salmon and cod of excellent varieties abound. Herring and halibut add to the commercial value of Alaska's fishing industry in which from



*Map showing size of Alaska; black area represents Alaska.*

15 to 25 thousand persons are now employed annually during the summer and fall months.<sup>2</sup>

The fur-seal industry is confined chiefly to the Pribiloff Islands in the Bering Sea and is under the jurisdiction of the Department of Commerce, which exercises great care in order that the breeding stock may continue plentiful. The white population cannot kill fur-seal, but Indians are permitted to do so under govern-

<sup>2</sup> Henderson, Lester D. Historical sketch of Alaska with brief outline of resources and civil government. Juneau, Alaska, Territorial board of education, 1923.

ment regulations. Commercial fur-seal killing is in charge of representatives of the Bureau of Fisheries.

Agriculture is as yet relatively undeveloped though there are sections which have promising prospects of suitability for agricultural purposes. Small garden fruits such as strawberries, raspberries, and gooseberries, garden vegetables such as celery, carrots, turnips, potatoes, are successfully raised, while cattle are raised in the interior and certain coastal regions. Five agricultural experiment stations are maintained for the further development of the agricultural resources of the Territory. At the present time certain resettlement projects are under way. The development of successful undertakings of this type are expected to result in further and more complete demonstration of Alaska's agricultural possibilities.

Mining, especially gold mining, continues to be a source of wealth and economic progress. During its productive years Alaska was exceeded in gold production only by California. Its mineral resources, still undeveloped, are said to exceed those of any of the States best known for minerals. During the peak year the output of Alaskan mines was about \$20,000,000. Production for 1933 is reported as approximately \$10,000,000. There are vast forests which are promising for the further development of lumber and paper industries. Domesticated reindeer numbering more than 700,000 are today furnishing a whole or partial living to about 13,000 natives. There are abundant herds of caribou, moose, and mountain sheep which furnish food as well as good hunting opportunities for both native and white populations.

Alaska has important assets also in its scenic beauties and natural wonders. The greatest glacial fields in the world are located there, and there are numerous volcanoes, both active and extinct. The marvels of the famous Valley of Ten Thousand Smokes are among the features of interest in Alaska. Mount McKinley, the highest mountain peak in North America, with its head almost constantly in the clouds, rises to an altitude of more than 20,000 feet. The Yukon and the Kuskokwim are among the largest navigable rivers.

The total output of Alaskan products from 1919 to 1930, a period during which records have been kept by the United States,



is estimated at approximately \$2,000,000,000. Fur-bearing animals contribute to Alaska's income to the extent of about \$3,000,000 a year. Alaskan salmon fisheries include some of the richest and most productive centers in the world. The fish industry as a whole contributes between 40 and 50 million dollars a year to the total income. In number of persons employed in the various industries, fishing is most important. Eighty percent of the people are engaged in some of the fishing industries, 15 percent in mining, and the other 5 percent in miscellaneous occupations.



One of Alaska's Many Glaciers.

and industries. Income from minerals for 1934 was nearly \$17,000,000. The tourist trade adds considerably, but in varying amounts, to the territorial income.

Transportation within the Territory at reasonable cost, especially in some regions and during some seasons, still offers practically insurmountable difficulties. Travel by air is popular and highly successful, and a number of planes are used throughout the Territory. Fairbanks, Anchorage, and Nome are important air travel centers with a dozen or more planes stationed for service in each. In some of the towns automobiles are not uncommon. The Government owns and maintains an auto road 371 miles long from Valdez on the Gulf of Alaska to Fairbanks,



and the Alaska Railroad, 471 miles in length from Seward to Fairbanks. Travel by dog team is still the prevailing method of transportation, however. Practically all Alaskans own dogs. There are said to be more than 40,000 work dogs in the Territory. Travel by boat, particularly small motorboats, is the prevailing method, especially along the larger rivers.

Transportation from "Outside"—in Alaska the Territory itself is "Inside", the rest of the world "Outside"—is by boat



Modern Airplanes Carry Mail and Passengers Throughout Alaska

and plane, chiefly the former. Regular boats on two or more lines ply between Seattle and British Columbia and the Alaskan gulf and ocean ports.

#### LOCATION AND CLIMATE

ALMOST in its entirety Alaska lies west as well as north of the United States; beginning near Mount St. Elias, somewhat west of Los Angeles, its mainland extends approximately 3,000 miles west of San Francisco, while its western extremity via the Aleutian Islands reaches almost to Japan. At its nearest point to Asia, Cape Prince of Wales, it is only 40 miles from the Siberian coast. While Alaska extends into the Arctic Circle, its most extensive mainland area is in the temperate zone. It is com-

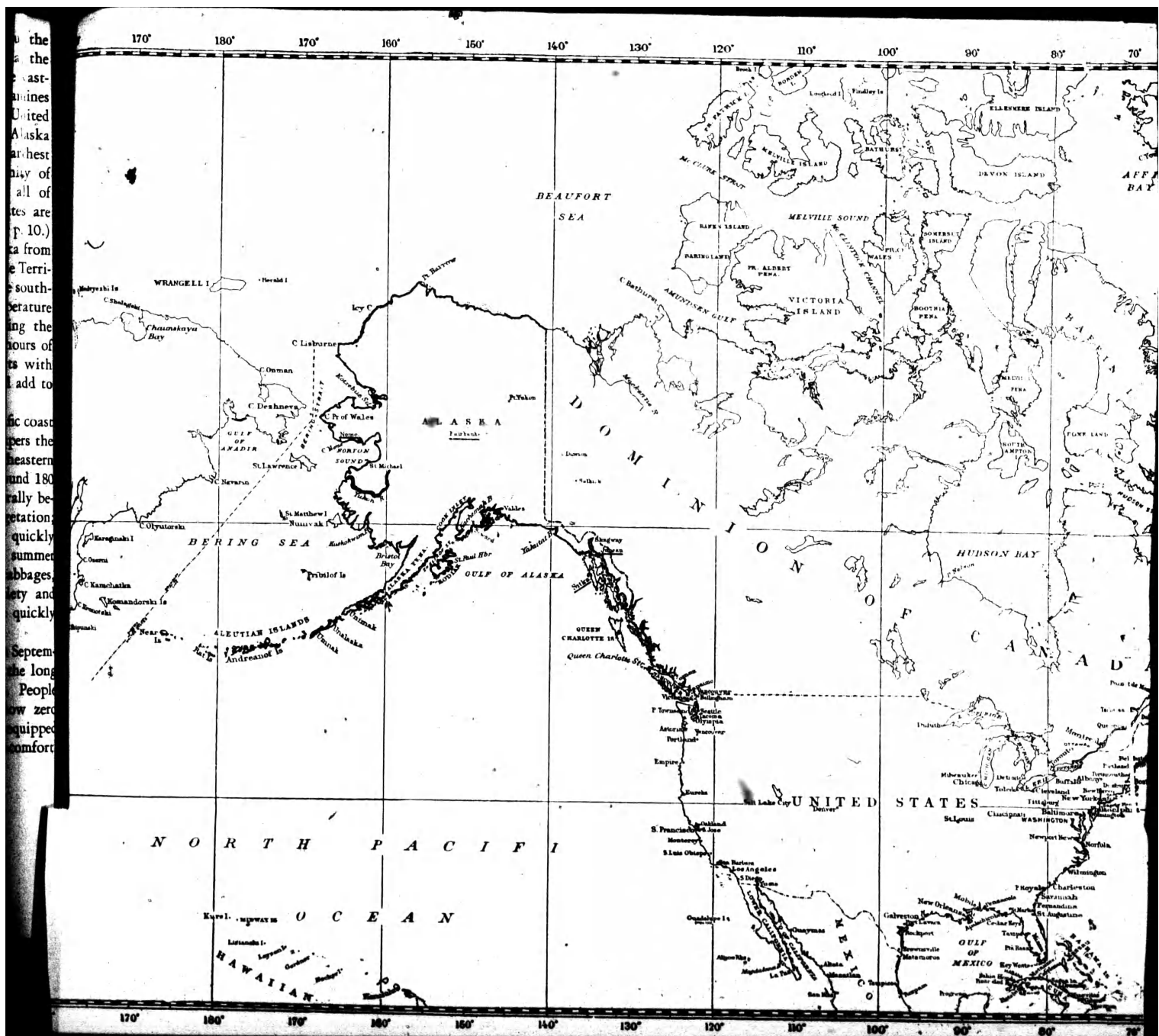
parable in latitude to the Scandinavian Peninsula. Juneau, the capital, is in about the same latitude as Edinburgh; Sitka, the old Russian capital, in the latitude of Copenhagen. The vastness of the area of Alaska may be best realized if one examines a map of the Territory superimposed upon one of the United States. If so placed that the farthest east section of Alaska touches the United States near Savannah, Ga., the point farthest west in Alaska, the island of Attu, will be in the vicinity of Los Angeles, touching the Pacific Ocean. Practically all of seven States and large sections of three additional States are covered by the Alaskan mainland. (Maps p. 6 and facing p. 10.)

Climates vary widely in the different sections of Alaska from the climate of the Arctic Circle in which one-fourth of the Territory lies and where frigid weather prevails, to that of the southeastern section—Juneau, for example, where the temperature rarely falls and remains long below zero. Even during the winter in this section there are warm days. The long hours of sunlight in the summer season and the long twilights with practically no real darkness in the whole 24-hour period add to the apparent mildness of this season.

The warm Japanese current which sweeps up the Pacific coast and is diverted to the west by the Aleutian Islands, tempers the climate of a large part of the Territory. In the southeastern section the rainfall is exceedingly heavy, averaging around 180 inches, but the climate is not nearly as severe as is generally believed. In summer the land is covered with dense vegetation; wild flowers, in unbelievable beauty and variety, grow quickly and profusely during the long daylight hours of the summer months. Vegetables common in the temperate zone, cabbages, potatoes, and the like, berries in almost infinite variety and great abundance are of fine size and flavor and mature quickly because of the long daylight hours.

In the interior of Alaska snow lies on the ground from September until May. Rivers freeze 5 or 6 feet deep during the long winter, and the atmosphere is heavy with frozen mist. People go about their work in temperatures of 30 or more below zero but, warmly dressed and with comfortable, modernly equipped houses they seem to feel little inconvenience or discomfort.



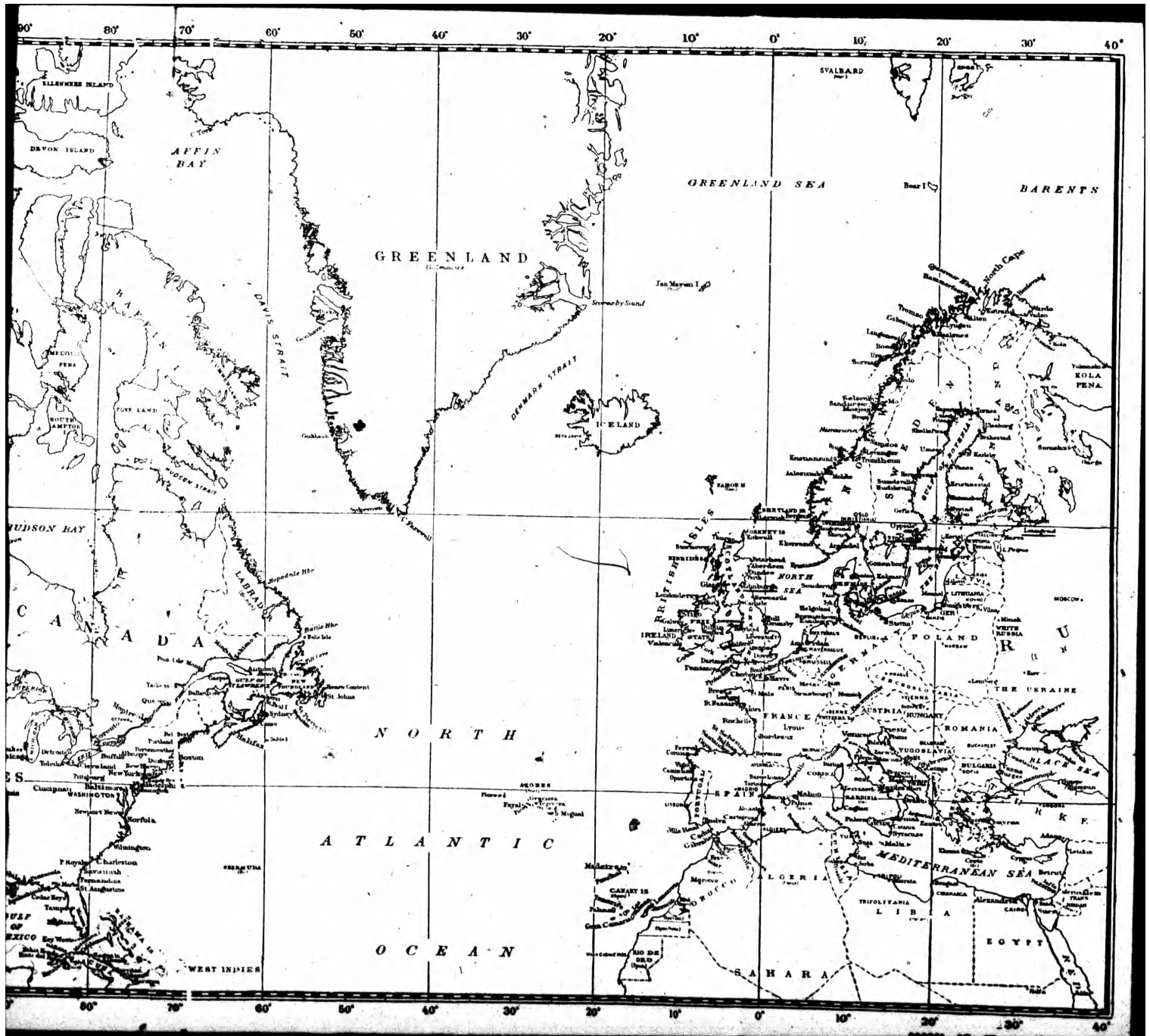


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Fortunately fur clothing is available in abundance. The Eskimo parka, a long fur coat that pulls on over the head with a hood faced with wolverine fur—one which does not collect frost—is as fashionable as well as practical garment among both the white people and the Eskimos. Winter days are short. On December 31 at Fairbanks the sun stays above the horizon only 3 hours, often not long enough to penetrate the clouds. People go and come to and from business; children go to school and come home by artificial light.

In June, the short colorful summer with its abundance and variety of flowers and foliage comes, as it later goes, with a rush. On June 21 the sun consumes 21 hours in the journey across the sky, dipping below the horizon for only 3 hours during which twilight reigns. One can read and work practically all day without artificial light. Alaskans learn to sleep when sleepy, while the uninitiated must adjust themselves, like the small boy who was Robert Louis Stevenson, "to go to bed by day."

## THE PEOPLE

### WHITE POPULATION

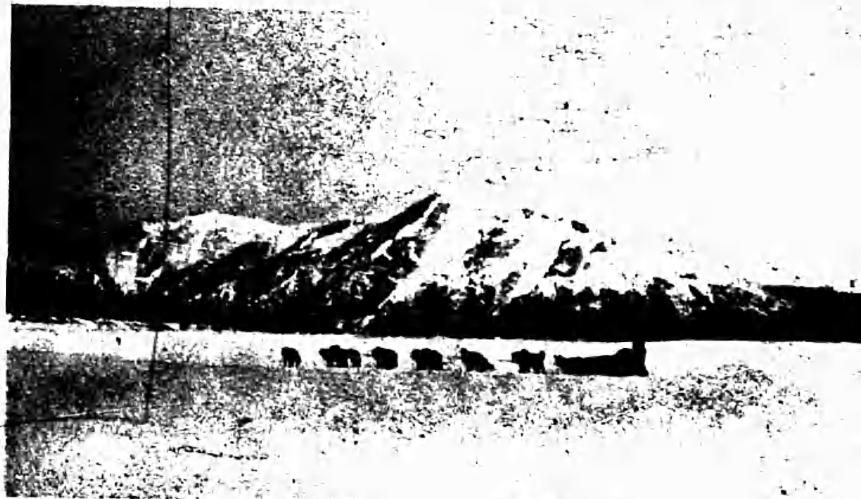
ALASKA has two quite distinct populations, the native population, indigenous to the Territory, and the white population. In 1930 the two totaled approximately 60,000 persons and were almost equally divided numerically.

At the time of the purchase of Alaska by the United States the white population was composed almost entirely of Russians, descendants of or supplementary to the colonists who had come from that country. Many of them remained to become citizens or to live under the sovereignty of the United States, and they and their descendants constitute a considerable part of the present population. The climate and fishing industry of Alaska, as might be expected, have a special appeal to the people of the Scandinavian countries and emigrants from these countries and their descendants make another significant contribution to the population.

During the various mineral booms, particularly during the rush following the discovery of the gold deposits of the Klondike



region, thousands of people migrated from Europe and the States, particularly, of course, from the latter. This population was later considerably depleted but formed the nucleus of a permanent one, which has been substantially augmented since by people from every State of the Union as well as Europe. The present population is substantial and progressive, prevailing of the pioneer type, which may be depended upon to develop the natural resources of this promising and unique Territory. While there are at least a few white people in practically every native community, the bulk of the white population lives in the towns.



A Dog Team Is as Necessary in Some Parts of Alaska as an Automobile in the States.

where life goes on normally much as it does in what in common Alaskan parlance is called "the States."

Alaska has seven towns, each with a population of 1,000 or more, of which Juneau, the capital, is the largest. Many of the coast towns on the mainland and on the numerous islands nearby are interesting if not unique, at least in layout and architecture. They are built on the sides of the mountains which fall so precipitously into the water that one has at least a momentary delusion of houses going about on stilts. They are built high above the water and on the steep sides of the mountain on piles; bordering streets of planks are also built out over the water. Log houses are abundant in many parts of Alaska, especially in Fairbanks, sometimes known as "the largest log cabin city in



the world." Fairbanks is said, too, to have the farthest north college and high school, daily newspaper, and golf links in America. Juneau boasts a modern office building—the Federal Government's—of brick and marble, and the larger towns have large and modern hotels and shops.

Sitka, formerly the Russian capital, is perhaps Alaska's most interesting city. It is picturesquely located and its old Russian Cathedral, dating back to the Russian occupation, contains valuable ikons—paintings by distinguished artists, many of them framed in silver and gold and embellished with precious stones; as well as textiles and church articles heavily embroidered and embellished with precious stones. Many of these were brought around Cape Horn or across Siberia. One painting in particular representing the Madonna and Child is of great beauty and value. In Sitka, too, there is a beautiful public park in which there are numerous examples of Indian totem poles brought from different sections of Alaska.

#### NATIVE POPULATION

The native population numbers at the present time approximately 30,000 persons, widely scattered throughout the Territory. There are no land allotments or reservations corresponding to those provided for Indians in the States nor do the Alaskans own oil, lumber, mineral lands, or other natural resources. Homesteads have been applied for and received in limited numbers and there are a number of natives who are successful farmers in the productive areas. Native settlements as a rule, however, are centered along the coast and along the great rivers. These rivers offer a means of transportation and, since fish are abundant, offer a substantial means of adding to the supply of food also. The majority of the people live in villages varying in size from 40 to 500 people or, in a few sections, even more. The villages are somewhat isolated and have little communication with each other. The village rather than the tribe is the unit so far as native activities are concerned. Southeastern Alaska is an exception to this general situation. Indians make up a goodly portion of the inhabitants in practically all the large towns and

constitute the whole or practically the whole population in number of native villages.

The aboriginal inhabitants of Alaska are variously classified by different authorities. Clark<sup>3</sup> divides them into four groups Eskimos, Aleuts, Athabascans, and Thlingers.

The Thlingers and two minor races—the Haida and Tsimshian—live chiefly in southeastern Alaska near the coast of the mainland and on the islands in its vicinity. The Thlingers probably originated in British Columbia. They were originally



An Eskimo Mother and Child.

and to some extent still are carvers, chiefly of wood, and they weave blankets and baskets. The Chilkats living in the vicinity of Haines and the Lynn Canal are remarkable for their blankets of high color and unique pattern.

The southeastern Alaska Indians record their family history in carved cedar poles called totems. Their place in southern Alaskan life is somewhat similar to that which coats of arms or crests occupy among many modern people. Totem poles formerly stood near, generally in front of, the family home, some reaching a height of 50 feet.

The Athabaskan is one of the largest linguistic families in North America. The Alaskan branches live in the interior of

<sup>3</sup>Op. cit.



the country. The Eskimos live in western Alaska, chiefly along the coast of the Bering Sea and the Arctic Ocean, and on the rivers. The Aleuts occupy the Aleutian Islands and their immediate vicinity and are generally considered a branch of the Eskimo group.

According to recent information from the Office of Indian Affairs—now in charge of education and welfare service to native Alaskans—Eskimos and Aleuts make up about 19,000 of the 30,000 native people. Five different Indian groups make up the remaining 11,000. Geographically the native population is distributed in divisions which are recognized also for school supervisory purposes. The districts are: Southwestern Alaska with a population of approximately 6,000, chiefly Indians; northwestern Alaska, whose population is largely Eskimo and numbers about 8,700; the Alaskan Peninsula and the Aleutian Islands with nearby parts of the Alaskan coast, approximately 7,300 Eskimos and Aleuts; and the fourth division including the Kuskokwim and upper Yukon Rivers, and a large part of the interior, population of which numbers approximately 8,000 natives, made up of both Indian and Eskimo groups.

The economic situation among Alaskan natives has long been a source of great concern to the officials in charge of their welfare and education. Since the advent of the white population the former means of making a living, largely by fishing and trapping, as well as the old ways of life, are becoming more and more difficult, even impossible. As civilization advances the fish and game supply available to natives becomes more and more limited. New needs and desires have developed among the natives more rapidly than they have acquired the means of supplying them. The introduction of the reindeer industry described elsewhere was perhaps the most important single step in alleviating the serious economic condition of the Eskimos. Many now make a living in the reindeer industry. Fishing and trapping are still among the chief means of livelihood. In many parts of Alaska wild fur-bearing animals are still plentiful and domesticated fur-bearing animals, especially fox, are raised by natives to a considerable extent. Carving of ivory—found in large quantities

in Alaska, basket weaving and other native industries, employment as laborers in mines and canneries, are other means of making a living. Canners and stores are conducted by the natives to some extent also.

In general, standards of living are simple and primitive in the majority of native communities. A number of natives have reasonable incomes and build substantial homes of the type introduced by the white man. In the more primitive sections homes of the natives have not changed substantially from those found when the Bureau of Education officials initiated the school system. In his report to the Commissioner of Education in 1888, the Bureau agent for education in Alaska describes these dwellings. "The Eskimos", he says, "dress in skins of animals and live in circular mounds covered with grass, with small openings at the top for smoke. The entrance is a small door and narrow hallway leading to the main room about 12 by 20 feet without light or ventilation." Then, as now, the Eskimos travel in summer seeking fishing grounds, returning in winter to their permanent homes.

In general, except in the most remote sections, their former diet of moose, deer, whale, walrus, seal, and fowl, is no longer available in adequate quantities and the white man's food has replaced it altogether or supplements it to a considerable extent. Reindeer meat, game, wild fowl, are still abundant in some sections of Alaska. Extreme poverty is, however, still prevalent among Eskimos who have not yet become fully adjusted to the white man's world in which they live.

## THE GOVERNMENT

### PRESENT FORM AND ITS DEVELOPMENT

ALASKA is governed as a Territory of the United States under the general supervision of the Department of the Interior. The Governor, who at present, but not necessarily, is a bona fide resident of the Territory, is appointed by the President, with the advice and consent of the United States Senate, for a 4-year term. Members of the Territorial Legislature are elected by the people. Certain territorial officials, among them the treasurer and labor



commissioner, are appointed by the Governor; others, among them the attorney general, are elected. The legislature is made up of two houses as in the States. The senate is composed of 8 members, 2 from each of the 4 judicial districts into which Alaska is divided, and the house of 16 members, 4 from each district. The terms are 4 and 2 years, respectively. The legislature convenes biennially.

Judiciary power is vested in the district court of the United States and in the probate and justices' courts. There are four divisions of the district court, each presided over by a judge, who is appointed by the President with the advice and consent of the Senate, for a term of 4 years. Probate and justice courts are presided over by commissioners who are appointed by the district judges and are ex-officio justices of the peace, recorders, and probate judges.

In many respects the Territorial Government resembles that of each of the States and the United States Government. There are the same three departments—executive, legislative, and judicial. The legislative department is, however, the only one under the control of the people so far at least as its constitution is concerned. Its acts are subject to veto by the Governor, who is appointed by the President of the United States, and to nullification by the Congress.

A Delegate to Congress is provided for in lieu of a Representative. He is elected by the people for a term of 2 years. He has the powers and privileges of a Member of the House of Representatives from one of the States but has no vote.<sup>4</sup>

This form of government represents a long struggle for recognition by the Government of the United States on the part of the people of Alaska, particularly the white population whose efforts toward development of Alaska's resources were balked for many years by lack of suitable, stabilized government.

Following its acquisition by the United States, Alaska was unorganized territory for about 17 years. It was governed by the War Department until 1877 when its administration was

<sup>4</sup> Data from Clark and Henderson, *Op. cit.* Also from: Churchill, Frank C. Condition of educational and school service and the management of reindeer service in the District of Alaska. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1906.

turned over to the Treasury Department operating through deputy collector of customs. The service of the Treasury Department was in turn succeeded in 1879 by that of the Navy Department, which lasted until civil government was established by the act of May 17, 1884. This law created the District of Alaska and provided for the appointment of a Governor, a United States judge, a district attorney, a district marshal, three commissioners, and a clerk of the district court. The act extended over Alaska the laws of the State of Oregon "as far as they were applicable." It included the first congressional legislation for schools in Alaska through its provision that "the Secretary of the Interior shall make needful and proper provision for the education of the children of school age in the Territory of Alaska without reference to race, until such time as permanent provision shall be made for the same. The sum of \$25,000 or so much thereof as may be necessary is hereby appropriated for this purpose."

While the act of 1884 was a step in the direction of suitable government for Alaska, it proved inadequate, especially when the influx of settlers came following discovery of minerals in different sections, particularly the discovery of gold in the Klondike. From time to time, therefore, additional laws designed to improve conditions were passed by Congress, leading up to the final one of creating the area into a Territory of the United States, passed in 1912.

Of special significance so far as schools are concerned, is the passage of an act of Congress approved January 27, 1905, entitled "An Act to Provide for the Maintenance and Establishment of Roads, the Maintenance and Establishment of Schools, and Other Purposes", which contained provisions of considerable importance to the development of public education in Alaska. According to the act, the Governor of the District of Alaska "shall be ex-officio superintendent of public instruction in said district, shall have supervision and direction of the public schools, prescribe rules and regulations for the examination and qualifications of teachers, and make an annual report on the condition of the schools to the Secretary of the Interior." The common councils of the incorporated towns in the district were authorized



to establish school districts in their respective towns, to build or rent suitable schoolhouses, to maintain schools, or to provide the necessary funds for their support. The act stated also that the schools provided for in the act should be devoted to the education of white children and children of mixed blood in the District of Alaska who lived a civilized life, while the education of Eskimos and Indians was to remain under the direction and control of the Secretary of the Interior. Until the passage of this act schools for white children, as for natives, had been maintained under the direction of the Bureau of Education.

In 1906 Congress provided for a code of civil and criminal law, for representation of the District through a Delegate to Congress, and for means of securing homestead rights. Finally, in 1912, the Territory of Alaska was created by the passage of what is known as the Organic Act. Provision was made for a Territorial Legislature of 2 houses, a senate of 8 members, and a house of 16 members, chosen equally from each of the 4 judicial districts, to convene biennially as at present. Juneau was established as the capital of the Territory. Up to that time Sitka, the old Russian capital, had been retained. The Organic Act is still the basic law of the Territory on which the present form of government as described above has developed.

## • II •

# THE SCHOOLS

### INTRODUCTION

SOCIALLY and economically the white population is made up and lives much as people in like situations live in the several States, especially the Northern and Northwestern States to which Alaska is somewhat similar, at least in climate and industry. Among the native population, however, social, economic, and racial conditions and consequently educational problems differ materially from those normal to the United States. These more or less specialized problems, the responsibility which the Federal Government assumes for the welfare and ultimate assimilation of the native population into American civilization, as well as developments referred to elsewhere in this bulletin, have resulted in the establishment and maintenance of two free public-school systems—one supported by the Federal Government for the native peoples and one supported chiefly by the Territory and the local school districts for the white population. Natives attend both types of schools though the majority of the children are enrolled in those supported by the Federal Government. In general the native day schools are confined chiefly to the elementary (1 to 8) grades. For this reason native children prepared for and wishing to pursue high-school courses generally avail themselves of the facilities of the Territorial secondary schools. In addition, by special arrangement or otherwise, they attend regular Territorial schools both elementary and secondary, in a number of school districts. Generally speaking, this situation



prevails in communities in which there are very few children of either race and provision of two schools would seem incongruous. In at least one of the larger towns, however, by special arrangement with Federal officials, native children have enrolled in the Territorial schools for a number of years.

## TERRITORIAL SCHOOLS

THE Territorial school system organized for the education of children of white and mixed blood resembles the State school systems of the United States in general organization, objectives, and school practices. The system is under the general supervision of a Territorial Board of Education with commissioner of education appointed by the board as its executive officer. In providing a central system of administration and support, Alaska and Hawaii, our two Territories, are somewhat similar; both follow also more progressive methods of selecting the commissioner of education than many of the States.

Territorial schools are supported chiefly by appropriations from the Territorial treasury augmented by 25 percent of the Alaska fund, a fund made up or raised from a variety of Federal taxes collected in the Territory. It nets the schools approximately \$50,000 annually. Together these Territorial funds furnish from 70 to 80 percent of the cost of the schools in incorporated districts. The local communities supply the remainder of the support through local taxation. There are 17 such incorporated towns and school districts in the Territory.

Schools in 63 rural school districts and 9 special schools located in some of the very sparsely settled communities are maintained wholly from Territorial funds. The rural schools are 1- and 2-teacher schools with relatively few exceptions. The average daily attendance in these schools varies from 2 to 100 pupils. In only about 6 of them is the attendance more than 50.

The teaching staff compares favorably in academic and professional qualifications, salaries, and the like, to those in small rural schools in the Western States, especially those which are nearest territorially to Alaska. The staff is recruited from many

States as well as from Alaska itself. Since 1933 completion of standard 3-year teacher-preparing courses has been required as prerequisite for an Alaskan elementary teaching certificate. High-school teachers must conform to the requirements of the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools.

In 1933-34, qualifications of the teaching staff then employed were reported as follows: <sup>1</sup>

	Percent of teachers in		
	High school	Elementary city	Elementary rural
College or university graduate	98.8	21.2	22.3
Normal school graduate		73.7	72.3
Postgraduate training	94.8	76.7	80.25
Average years of experience	7.6	9.3	8.3

<sup>1</sup> Report of the commissioner of education, Territory of Alaska, Biennium ended June 1934.

Enrollments for 1933-34 were as follows: Rural schools, 1,744 pupils; incorporated cities, 3,775. There are 16 high schools in incorporated towns of which 15 offer 4-year courses. Ten are accredited by the University of Washington; 8 are accredited by the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools. High-school enrollment for 1933-34 was 1,039. The per-pupil costs based on average daily attendance for the same year were: Incorporated cities, \$113.82; rural, \$129.04; special schools, \$157.14. Special schools are maintained in the very isolated communities. The term throughout the Territory is 9 months.

The University of Alaska, formerly the Alaska Agricultural College and School of Mines, heads the public-school system. It is the only public institution of higher learning in Alaska. The enrollment in 1932 was 211. Courses in education are now offered. Agricultural experiment stations are maintained in five centers in connection with the college. Cooperative extension work similar to that offered in agriculture and mechanic arts colleges in each of the 48 States is maintained also in Alaska.



## FEDERAL SCHOOLS

For the purposes of this brief historical sketch, the history of the schools and of the development of a Federal school system in Alaska is divided into four rather distinct periods; the first is concerned with schools under the Russian regime; the second extends from the date of purchase of Alaska by the United States in 1867 to 1884, when responsibility for education was placed with the Secretary of the Interior; the third extends from 1884 to 1905, when a separate school system for children of white and mixed-blood parentage was provided; and the fourth from that period to 1931, when the responsibility for schools was transferred from the Bureau of Education to the Office of Indian Affairs.

### SCHOOLS UNDER THE RUSSIAN REGIME

Schools were established in Alaska soon after its first European or Russian settlement, made by Gregory Shelikof in 1784. They were maintained by missionaries of the Russian-Greek Church and by the Russian American Fur Co. throughout Russian occupation.

The first school was located at the trading post of St. Paul, now Kodiak, on Kodiak Island. It was near the western limit of the Eskimo population at that time and was the capital and seat of Russian occupation in America for some years. Other schools were established, located in the settlements along the shores of the North Pacific Ocean, as Russian colonists came and schools became necessary. The Russian American Fur Co., Russia's agent for the government of Alaska, was required by the terms of its charter to establish schools at all of its trading posts. Usually these were primary schools and were under the direction of the local trader. At least one of the schools established by the Russian company, that at Sitka, was of higher grade. It was originally provided for the purpose of training promising young men for service with the company, but enrolled girls as well as boys and employed competent teachers. Girls were trained for housework; boys largely for work concerned with the shipping industry carried on by the company.

Both Shelikof and Baronof encouraged mission schools as well as churches, both of which apparently flourished in accord with the custom of the times elsewhere. Soon after the capital was moved to Sitka schools were opened there, the first one established in 1805. At the time the United States purchased Alaska at least 17 schools were in existence, 5 of which were in Sitka. They were chiefly for children of white or mixed parentage and did not reach any considerable number of natives.<sup>2</sup>

#### SECOND PERIOD, 1867-84

From 1867 until 1884, while Alaska was without any form of government, it was also without schools other than those provided by the different missions. In 1877 the Presbyterian Board of Missions, through its agent Dr. Sheldon Jackson, established schools at some of its stations, as did several other denominations. Devoted and able as the missionaries were, the facilities and extent of the schools were quite inadequate to the needs. During this period much pressure was brought to bear on Congress through memorials and petitions from various sections of the country, from the National Education Association, and from the United States Commissioner of Education, Hon. John Eaton, for the establishment of federally supported schools in Alaska. Commissioner Eaton, in his report for 1882, made the following statement: "Alaska lies entirely outside of all organized efforts for education and presents a singular fact of being an integral part of the boasted most progressive nation in the world and yet without the least possible provision to save its children from growing up in the grossest ignorance and barbarism."

It was probably as a result of these efforts that Congress incorporated into the act of 1884 the provision to which reference has been made elsewhere, charging the Secretary of the Interior with responsibility for educating the children of Alaska without regard to race. In March 1885, Hon. Henry M. Teller, then Secretary of the Interior, assigned to the commissioner of education the responsibility for effecting the purposes of Congress. This was the beginning of public education in Alaska.

<sup>2</sup> Report on the Alaska school service and the Alaska reindeer service. Ch. XV, Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1907. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1908.



THIRD PERIOD, 1884-1905, PUBLIC EDUCATION  
UNDER FEDERAL CONTROL

The Commissioner of Education, Hon. John Eaton, considered the responsibility of organizing the schools of Alaska as one of great magnitude and importance. The vastness of the Territory, the fact that large tracts of it were icebound and inaccessible during a part of the year, the isolation of the few settlements and trading posts established, the lack of available means of communication except of the most primitive types, and the fact that the schools were to serve a backward native population, contributed to cumulative and almost insurmountable difficulties.

The first essential in the organization of schools as stated by Commissioner Eaton in his report to the Secretary of the Interior was that of finding a reliable person to put in charge of and supervise the work. Accordingly, in April 1885, following the assignment of functions to the Department, the office of General Agent of Education in Alaska was established in the Bureau of Education and the Commissioner appointed Rev. Sheldon Jackson, a missionary who had seen much service in Alaska, to fill the position. The Federal school system was established under his direction. On his recommendation the several mission schools which had been established since Alaska's purchase by the United States were continued as public schools and others were established and conducted under contracts made by the Government with missionary societies of the several denominations interested and those which later became interested in the missionary field in Alaska. In his annual report for 1886 Dr. Jackson reports schools conducted by missions under contracts with the Federal Government at Sitka, Juneau, Hoonah, Haines, and other points in southeastern Alaska; one school in western Alaska at Unalaska on the Aleutian Islands; one at Bethel on the Kuskokwim River; one each on the Yukon and Mushavik Rivers in the interior, and on the Pribilof Islands.

Early reports of Dr. Jackson, including the first one of 1886, are of interest because of the principles and policies for education in Alaska established under his regime and continued throughout and even beyond the period of his service. From the beginning he emphasizes the importance of "industrial exercises" in

connection with the school curriculum. Such exercises, he says "are being introduced into the school as rapidly as possible. Arrangements are provided for teaching cooking and sewing to the girls two afternoons each week and plans are under way for instructing the boys in industrial work."

The purpose of the school, according to Dr. Jackson, is "to develop an intelligent and useful citizenship. Schools will need more and more to expand their industrial facilities. As the people make progress, catch the spirit of civilization, and come under the influence which emanates from the schools, they gradually begin to give up their old methods of living and adopt the American. One by one they saw out a pane in the windowless walls of their houses and insert sash and glass. One after another purchases a cook stove, iron pots, dishes, knives, and forks. Then comes a bedstead and the bedding is taken from the floor. Thus slowly and gradually through the influence of the school the population is raised in the scale of civilization. All this creates a necessity for a larger income and more remunerative employment. To create a want without enabling the people to supply it is only to make them more miserable. The work of the Alaska school system is not only to teach reading, writing, and arithmetic, but also how to live better, how to make more money in order to live better, and how to utilize the resources of the country to serve these ends."

Many other policies, quite modern in character, were advocated and so far as possible placed in operation from the inauguration of the system. Dr. Jackson recommends that steps be taken by Congress to make attendance upon Government schools obligatory; stresses the importance of character education to which he refers as moral training among the natives, and of education concerned with health and sanitation.

He recommends also in his first report that 2-weeks' institutes for teachers be held once a year. The excellent reason given for this recommendation is that "conditions surrounding teachers separated from others for 12 months among half-civilized people, using a foreign tongue, are so peculiar that it is not strange that they find a want not fully filled by the training of the best normal schools nor would it be strange if they become gradually de-



pressed in their work." Teachers should be married men accompanied by their wives insofar as possible, though "in a few places where they can have a home in a private family it will be proper to employ unmarried ladies."

In his first report on education in Alaska the commissioner of education recommends to Congress that it provide an appropriation for suitable school buildings at the nine centers in which federally supported schools have been established. None of the school buildings were then owned by the Government and with one or two exceptions "no school has a comfortable building adapted to its necessities." The first appropriation was utterly inadequate to supply or even substantially improve the buildings then in use.

The policy of providing a school program designed to promote gradual adjustment of native Alaskans to the social and economic life with which they were constantly coming into closer contact, inaugurated during the service of Dr. Jackson, was considered of special importance by succeeding commissioners throughout the years during which the schools were conducted under the supervision of the Bureau of Education. Commissioner William T. Harris, in his report for 1896-97, makes the following statements in regard to this policy:

"It had been obvious, from the beginning of the Government subsidies in 1885-86, that there should be not only education in elementary English branches, but also a training in the employments of civilized life. From the first, at all the missions there was instruction in cooking, housekeeping, and clothes making. Then followed more careful education in the trades of carpentering, blacksmithing, and shoemaking, subsidizing for this instruction the Presbyterian Industrial School at Sitka.

"The Bureau of Education has been charged with the care of education in Alaska. The object proposed from the beginning by the commissioners preceding me, General Eaton and Colonel Dawson, has been to provide such education as to prepare the natives to take up the industries and modes of life established in the States by our white population, and by all means not try to continue the tribal life after the manner of the Indians in the Western States and Territories. If the natives of Alaska could be

taught the English language, be brought under Christian influences by the missionaries, and trained into the forms of industry suitable for the Territory, it seems to follow as a necessary result that the white population of Alaska, composed of immigrants from the States, would be able to employ them in their pursuits using their labor to assist in mining, transportation, and in the production of food. A population of 40,000 natives engaged in reindeer herding and transportation would furnish the contingent needed to complement or make possible the mining industry."

The policy of subsidizing mission schools, inaugurated by Dr. Jackson, was followed until 1894. It apparently met the approval of the three commissioners of education, Eaton, Dawson and Harris, under whose administrations it was followed. Dr. Harris, in his report as commissioner of education for 1896-97, makes the following statement in regard to this policy:

"From the beginning, in 1885-86 on to 1893-94, it has been the policy of the Bureau of Education to subsidize mission schools in all places where it was not possible to establish Government day schools. The population of Indian villages is more or less nomadic, summering in camps on the seas and rivers at good fishing places, and wintering in their villages, located in more sheltered situations. The arrival of white immigrants has given a fixed character to these villages, in the southeast part of Alaska especially. In the southeastern region, in the presence of a larger or smaller contingent of white population, it has been found possible to establish Government schools and organize local school committees to supervise them. But in northern and western Alaska, villages with a nucleus of white population are not to be found, except at the ports of Unalaska and St. Michael; and in order to reach the natives successfully, it is necessary to avail one's self of the mission stations, 3 of which are located on the Arctic Ocean, 9 on the Bering Sea, and 7 in the river valley of the Yukon, making a total of 19 missions with 61 missionaries. These mission stations have been located, in the light of a great deal of experience, at such places as furnish natural centers for the native population and at the same time afford the best facilities for communication with the United States in the short summer season.



"In subsidizing the mission schools a certain minimum of school enrollment has been required, and a certain sum per pupil allowed, not to exceed in the aggregate a fixed sum agreed upon. The example of the Indian Bureau has been closely followed in this matter, except that where the Indian Bureau has allowed subsidies of \$167 per annum this Bureau has allowed from \$90 to \$150 per pupil, boarded, clothed, and instructed, and \$30 for day pupils. The maximum amount paid appears in the year 1889-90, when the sum of \$31,174.12 was paid. The largest item of that year was for industrial instruction and apparatus necessary to facilitate the same. . . . In the year 1894-95 the subsidizing of contract schools was entirely discontinued, but in a few cases Government teachers were assigned to the mission stations.

"The mission stations not only have the advantage of being located in important centers of the native population in the north and west, but they bring with them certain other advantages which the Government may use for its purposes of instructing the natives in the English language and in the arts of civilized life."

Following Dr. Jackson's appointment as agent for education in Alaska, he prepared for an immediate visit to the District. However, congressional appropriations were delayed until August 1886, when \$15,000 was made available. In the meantime trading vessels, that sailed regularly from San Francisco to the Bering Sea in the spring and returned in the fall, had all sailed. With them passed the only regular opportunity for reaching western Alaska either by the agent and teachers or with building or other school supplies. To wait until the following spring would involve another year's delay in establishing schools.

A steamer was, therefore, chartered and after a particularly difficult passage the bureau agent reached southeastern Alaska in September. He was able to visit and make contracts with schools in that section, on Kodiak Island, and along the southern coast and to bring back to the Commissioner of Education the first reliable information concerning the educational needs of southern and southeastern Alaska.

In spite of meager appropriations, at times indefinite in amount, and of the serious hardships involved in travel to Alaska and among the schools there after the Territory itself was reached, progress in improving and extending schools was continuous during this period of Alaska's school history.

Beginning in 1886 annual cruises to Alaska were made by representatives of the Bureau. After 1890 the annual trips generally included not only the southeastern sections, but extended to the western and northern coasts as well. During these visits new schools were established, old ones enlarged and improved, teachers were provided, often taken with the representative of the Bureau to the schools to which they were assigned, and visits of inspection and encouragement made to as many schools as possible. By 1887 schools had been so extended that a more systematic organization and distribution of responsibilities seemed desirable. A code of rules and regulations for the conduct of schools in the District of Alaska was therefore formulated and approved by the Secretary of the Interior. This code created a Territorial board of education consisting of the Governor, the United States judge, and the general agent of education. This board performed important functions until 1890 when they were assigned to local school committees. During this year, 1890, two new positions were created in the Alaskan service, an assistant agent of education in Alaska and a superintendent of schools for the Sitka district. The local boards continued until 1893 when they were disbanded and the schools thereafter supervised by district superintendents.

Beginning in 1890 and continuing for a number of years the agent for education in Alaska and other representatives of the Bureau accompanied the *U. S. S. Bear* on its annual cruise in the Bering Sea and Arctic Ocean. These trips made it possible to extend the school system into Arctic Alaska. During the few weeks of open navigation in the summer of 1890 supplies and building materials were landed, and a few months later schools were in successful operation at Cape Prince of Wales, Point Hope, and Point Barrow, the last named being the northernmost settlement on the continent. Each year thereafter saw extension or improvement of schools along the northern and western coasts of



Alaska. In 1894 the contract plan of subsidizing schools was discontinued and the Bureau of Education assumed complete control of public education in Alaska.

In 1905 Congress made certain sweeping changes in the government of Alaska. The Bureau of Education was relieved of its responsibilities for the education of white children and those of "mixed blood leading a civilized life." This action was the culmination of a long period of discontent on the part of white settlers whose children were forced to attend the same schools as natives, to the detriment of their advancement, according to many white citizens. It marked the beginning of what is now the Territorial school system, supported and supervised by Territorial officials. From the passage of this act, the Bureau of Education assumed responsibility for the education and general welfare of the natives only, while responsibility for education of white children was assumed by the District of Alaska and local municipal authorities. The Bureau continued maintenance of a few white schools until local authorities gradually became able to assume full responsibility. The extension of schools during this period is indicated below:

TABLE 1.—*Federal schools in Alaska*

Year	Number of schools		
	White	Native	Total
1886	2	5	7
1896	3	13	16
1904	2	30	32
1905	5	40	45

The first congressional appropriation was for \$25,000, available until expended. For the fiscal year 1886-87 the first allotment was \$15,000, which was later increased to \$25,000. Because of the small amount of money available no effort was made to build schoolhouses during this period. Beginning with 1889 an annual appropriation of \$40,000 was made by Congress and con-

tinued during the next 3 years when it was increased to \$50,000 annually. With the increased appropriations the Federal Government effected a program for Government-owned school buildings, which increased in number during the period from none in 1887 to 45 in 1905. Full information concerning appropriations is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Appropriations for the work of the Bureau of Education in Alaska*

Year	Appropriations for—			
	Education in Alaska	Reindeer for Alaska	Medical relief in Alaska	Total
1884	\$25,000			\$25,000
1887	15,000			15,000
1888	25,000			25,000
1889	40,000			40,000
1890	50,000			50,000
1891	50,000			50,000
1892	50,000			50,000
1893	40,000			40,000
1894	30,000	\$6,000		36,000
1895	30,000	7,500		37,500
1896	30,000	7,500		37,500
1897	30,000	12,000		42,000
1898	30,000	12,000		42,000
1899	30,000	12,500		42,500
1900	30,000	25,000		55,000
1901	30,000	25,000		55,000
1902	( <sup>1</sup> )	25,000		25,000
1903	( <sup>1</sup> )	25,000		25,000
1904	( <sup>1</sup> )	25,000		25,000
1905	( <sup>1</sup> )	25,000		25,000
1906	50,000	15,000		65,000
1907	100,000	9,000		109,000
1908	200,000	9,000		209,000
1909	200,000	15,000		215,000
1910	200,000	12,000		212,000
1911	200,000	12,000		212,000
1912	200,000	12,000		212,000
1913	200,000	5,000		205,000
1914	200,000	5,000		205,000
1915	200,000	5,000		205,000
1916	200,000	5,000	\$25,000	230,000

<sup>1</sup> From 1902 to 1905, inclusive, the schools were supported by license fees amounting during that period to \$334,458.46.



TABLE 2.—*Appropriations for the work of the Bureau of Education in Alaska—Continued*

Year	Appropriations for—			
	Education in Alaska	Reindeer for Alaska	Medical relief in Alaska	Total
1917	\$200,000	\$5,000	\$50,000	\$255,000
1918	208,000	5,000	62,500	275,500
1919	215,000	5,000	75,000	295,000
1920	306,000	7,500	80,000	393,500
1921	275,000	6,400	90,000	371,400
1922	325,000	10,000	90,000	425,000
1923	360,000	10,000	90,000	460,000
1924	355,000	10,000	90,000	455,000
1925	355,840	12,500	110,000	478,340
1926	437,075	12,500	122,320	571,895
1927	480,000	12,500	150,000	642,500
1928	469,400	17,520	150,000	636,920
1929	486,500	19,500	160,000	666,000
1930	580,400	19,800	171,780	771,980
1931	<sup>2</sup> 823,690	22,000	268,761	1,114,451
1932	<sup>2</sup> 1,357,519	26,900	<sup>2</sup> 319,482	1,703,900
1933	<sup>2</sup> 705,000	34,300	<sup>2</sup> 290,069	1,029,369
1934	600,000	32,400	281,600	914,000
1935	572,600	35,020	<sup>2</sup> 271,330	878,950

<sup>2</sup> Includes, besides regular appropriation, special appropriations for specific purposes.

#### FOURTH PERIOD, 1905-30, DEVELOPMENT OF THE PRESENT SYSTEM

The act of 1905 was followed by a more favorable period for education in Alaska. Appropriations for schools had been more or less erratic in amount, varying from \$50,000 in 1892 to \$40,000 in 1893, and \$30,000 annually for 7 years thereafter. From 1902 to 1906 schools were supported by license fees; the Federal Government continued its appropriations to the Bureau, however, for reindeer service. With the transfer of schools for children of whites and mixed parentage to the Territorial officials, congressional appropriations for native schools were resumed and in 1907 increased to \$100,000. In 1908 and for 9 years thereafter the appropriation was \$200,000 annually. Later appropriations continued to be more nearly adequate to the needs of the schools.

The new era was marked also by a reorganization and extension of the services and staff assigned both in the central office at Washington and in Alaska. A new division, known as the Alaska Division, was created in the Bureau of Education with a division chief in charge. The division included also a general agent of education in Alaska, an assistant agent, and two clerks and stenographers in the central office in Washington; three district superintendents of schools resident in Alaska, one superintendent



The Primary Room in the Ketchikan Government School.

for southern and southeastern Alaska, one for western central Alaska, and one for northwestern Alaska. Sixty-two teachers were employed in the year 1906-7 and schools were well distributed throughout the Territory. While expansion in the number of superintendency districts and superintendents and in number of schools and teachers took place in the years following, the organization remained similar in character, though headquarters of the chief of the division were changed, until 1931, when responsibility was transferred to the Office of Indian Affairs.

Considerable professional progress was made during the years following reorganization. The increased appropriations con-



tinued and improved service thereby became possible. Projects designed to improve the economic conditions of the natives are described elsewhere. Toward the professional growth of teachers; the improvement of classroom instruction and school organization; and toward curricular revision, definite steps were taken by the newly created division.

In 1908 the teachers in the Government schools were called together for the first teachers' conference held in Alaska, a dream of the first agent of the Bureau at last realized. They worked out a revision of the course of study, which included industrial training of several types suitable in Alaska; cooking, gardening, and sewing for the elementary schools. Again in 1909 and 1910 institutes were held for the teachers of southeastern Alaska when further work on the curriculum for that section was accomplished. Means of furnishing and improving school and community relationships were discussed and plans and procedures formulated; instruction in temperance, cleanliness, and native handicrafts were among other matters considered in their relation to the school curriculum.

In his report for 1907 the newly appointed chief of the Alaska Division summarized what he considered significant accomplishments which had been made the preceding years in teaching of the industrial arts, mentioning especially those concerned with building and operating boats and with the operation of sawmills, mines, and canneries. Cooking, sewing, dressmaking, basketry, beadwork, he continues, had been and were being successfully taught to girls. The plans for the extension of the Alaska School Service, he states, "include the systematizing and extension of the industrial training of the Alaska School Service so as to include all of the industries adapted to the various sections of Alaska." Half of the total appropriation for 1906-7, or \$100,000, was used to establish additional day schools to be available by March 1907.

Among the principles set forth in the report of 1907 the following are especially pertinent in view of present-day policies for the education of minority groups:

1. The natives of Alaska should be prepared to participate happily in, and to contribute efficiently to, a society in which

the white men and natives will live harmoniously in accordance with the standards of American civilization.

2. The native races may be elevated to a higher standard of civilization only through a system of education which recognize the community as the unit of effort and the individual as the subunit.

Experience in the education of the Indians in the United States has proved, generally speaking, that the individual who has by a process of education, apart from his own people, taken on a large share of the habits and the impulses of civilization, contributes much less to the promotion of the welfare of his race than the boy or girl who, although not progressing so far in school subjects, has lived with his tribe in his native environment.

Thus for the happiness of the individual Alaskan, for the welfare of the native races, and for the sake of a reward for labors performed by representatives of civilization, the education of the individual must be made subordinate to the advancement of the race.

3. The system of education must include all sides of native life and must observe proper coordination in the development in the various elements in that life.

At the present time the elements in the life of the Alaskan natives which need greatest attention are the industrial and the physical in relation to sanitary methods of life.

4. Governmental action should not contribute to the lessening of self-initiative and self-support, but should rather develop these capacities.

Among recommendations made at the same time are the following:

1. That an effort be made to secure the passage of a law which will grant to the natives of Alaska, under proper safeguards, the same rights and privileges under the public land and mineral laws as those now enjoyed by citizens of the United States.

2. That an effort be made to secure the passage of a law reserving from all forms of location and occupancy under the Alaska coal-land laws of the coal fields lying near Wainwright and Icy Cape.



3. That an effort be made to secure the passage of a law requiring the attendance at school of all children between the ages of 6 and 16, inclusive, during the entire school year (with certain stated exceptions).

4. That an effort be made to secure such legislation as will enable the Secretary of the Interior to erect and equip hospitals which will serve as centers for relieving disease and destitution and for furnishing instruction to native girls in nursing, and to employ physicians and nurses for the management of the same.

5. The employment of teachers for 12 months of the year where practicable.

6. That instruction in elementary agriculture be introduced in all places where the ground becomes sufficiently warm for plants to grow during the month of May; instruction in the same to begin by the carrying on of experiments in the schoolroom during the 2 months previous to outdoor work.

TABLE 3.—*Extension of school system, 1908-30*

Year	Number of schools	Enrollment	Average daily attendance	Teachers	Physicians and nurses
1908	59	3,067	1,204	<sup>1</sup> 62	1
1909	69	3,809	1,521	89	9
1910	77	3,962	1,704	98	<sup>2</sup> 17
1911	81	3,810	1,692	101	20
1916	70	3,600		102	13
1920	67	<sup>3</sup> 3,700		133	22
1930	93	3,899	3,029	195	<sup>4</sup> 67

<sup>1</sup> 1907 data.

<sup>2</sup> Data in this column from 1910 to 1930 include contract physicians who devoted practically entire time to Government service.

<sup>3</sup> 1919 data.

<sup>4</sup> Includes hospital employees.

Congress appropriated \$100,000 for the work in Alaska in 1907, and increased the amounts steadily in the years following. By 1920 the appropriation made to the Bureau was \$300,000, and in 1930, the last year of the period, it was approximately \$600,000. The school system had been extended year by year and reached as

many native communities where the population justified the establishment of a school, as appropriations made possible and justifiable. The year of the transfer, 210 teachers were employed in 101 schools.

Probably the most important achievements of the Bureau during this period were the establishment and successful operation of the reindeer service and the establishment and maintenance of a medical service for the natives of Alaska. Both are described elsewhere in this bulletin.

The special appropriations for medical service, allotted first in 1915, made possible the realization of Dr. Harris' hope, expressed in an early report, for the maintenance of health units and small hospitals or rooms in charge of physicians or nurses in connection with schools. In 1930, 16 village nurses were employed in connection with the village schools and in a capacity similar to that which Dr. Harris had in mind. A number of hospitals, varying in size according to the needs of the sections served, fully staffed with physicians and nurses, and a medical boat which plied the Yukon and Tanana Rivers during the summer months carrying a physician, dentist, and two nurses, administering both medical and dental services to the natives along these rivers, were other achievements made possible through the special appropriations. Both regular and contract physicians, in addition to hospital staffs, were engaged during this period to minister to the natives throughout Alaska.

The period was marked by expansion in number of schools and territory covered and by modernization of school organization and practices. Schools were extended as rapidly as increasing appropriations for buildings, equipment, and staff permitted. The growth in the number of schools, enrollment, and teachers is indicated in table 3. Of special importance, however, was the development of the school system professionally. The first essential in establishing schools was that of overcoming the hardships and handicaps inherent in the severe climate, the isolation, and primitive conditions of living which characterized Alaska in the early years of its development. The mere physical difficulties of getting schools built and equipped; of securing and transporting teachers to put in charge of them, were in



themselves accomplishments of such great magnitude that they absorbed the interest and taxed the ability of the officials during the early years of the system. From 1907 on, these difficulties were less absorbing; education in the States was developing on a professional basis, and efforts of the Bureau officials could now be centered on introducing into the Alaskan schools modern ideals in education prevalent in the States, especially those concerned with classroom practices and curricular adaptations.

The principles enunited by the chief of the Alaska Division in 1907, quoted elsewhere, could now be put into practical operation. Day schools were conducted as real centers of community life. Teachers were selected as carefully as possible with a view to personal and professional qualifications. Curricular adjustments designed to meet special needs of native life in the different sections were formulated and adopted, and the school system, as it now operates and as described more fully in succeeding pages, developed.

During these years supervision on a professional basis developed. The Territory was divided, first into three, later into six supervisory districts, each in charge of a superintendent chosen because of educational qualifications and experience, who lived in the most centrally located town in the district in order to be as accessible as possible to all the schools he supervised.

The superintendent was and still is both administrative and supervisory officer in his district. He visits the schools as frequently as conditions permit and is responsible to the central office for the efficiency of the work under his direction.

Headquarters of the division chief, now known as Director of Education for Alaska, were first located in Washington, D. C., but later transferred to Seattle as more convenient in location both to Alaska and to the central headquarters in Washington. Again in 1929 the Alaskan school headquarters were moved to Juneau where the education staff is still maintained. Business offices for certain Federal activities in Alaska, including many of those concerned with educational and medical services, are maintained in Seattle.

In 1925, three industrial schools were opened to offer specialized instruction of an industrial nature for which day schools could

not well be equipped. Their curricula emphasized particularly native industries, health, and sanitation. In order that they might accommodate natives from the remote sections where only small day schools were available, they were maintained as residential schools. The schools were located at K̄anakanak, Eklutna, and White Mountain. In 1929 plans were consummated for another residential school at Wrangell in southeastern Alaska, work on which had not been completed when the service was transferred to the Office of Indian Affairs.

The flu epidemic of 1918-19, resulting in the death of more than 1,600 natives, left a large number of orphans which were taken care of for a number of years at three orphanages established for the purpose, and later at the residential schools. In 1930 an orphanage was established at Tanana to which the younger orphans were transferred, in order that the residential schools could better pursue the purposes for which they were established.

In 1920, the U. S. S. *Boxer*, a wooden vessel which had been used as a training ship for naval cadets, was transferred by the Navy to the Interior Department for service in Alaska. It was reconditioned during the following years and started on its first trip under Bureau auspices in May 1923. Its acquisition was of real significance in the Alaska school service. The transportation problem had been one of the utmost difficulty from the beginning. Delays in transporting teachers and superintendents were inevitable while only commercial boats were available, and transportation of school building materials and equipment was accompanied by even greater difficulties, often necessitating the postponement of opening schools in territory difficult of access as much as one whole school year.

#### BROAD SERVICES OF THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION

The responsibility of the Bureau of Education for the education of natives of Alaska was broadly interpreted by the several commissioners of education responsible for the administration of the service. The duties of superintendents and teachers extended far beyond the schoolroom and school grounds and included whatever affected the lives of the natives socially and economically. One marvels, in reading the early reports, that the meager appro-



priations made during the early years of the Bureau's responsibility enabled it to undertake the many functions which the welfare of the natives demanded. Two of the most urgent needs recognized by officials of the Bureau practically with the inauguration of the school system were those concerned with improving the impoverished condition of the natives, especially on the west coast bordering the Bering Sea and Arctic Ocean, and that of supplying to all natives of the Territory medical service and hospitalization. To relieve these needs the officials in charge devoted themselves over a period of years, undertook hazardous journeys, encountered great hardships, and took every means available to draw the attention of Congress and officials at Washington to the serious conditions in Alaska as well as to suggest steps toward their alleviation.

#### INTRODUCTION OF REINDEER

In 1890 the Bureau's agent for education in Alaska made his first visit to the Arctic as far north as Point Barrow on the U. S. S. *Bear*. He brought back a vivid picture of the serious economic situation which confronted the Eskimos, especially the destitute condition of many of those in the Bering Sea and Arctic regions. Many of the Alaskan Eskimos, Dr. Jackson found, were eking out a bare living on the few whale, seal, and walrus that they could catch. The coming of the white man had seriously depleted the food supply formerly abundant in these sections. Across the Bering Strait in Siberia but a few miles away where climatic and other conditions were precisely similar to those in Alaska, thousands of natives were supporting themselves with domestic reindeer. Dr. Jackson and Captain Healy of the *Bear*, were deeply impressed with the possibility and desirability of introducing reindeer from Siberia into Alaska. They proposed to establish reindeer raising as an industry in connection with the schools maintained by the Bureau. Such an arrangement, it was believed, would afford a means of support to the Alaskan Eskimos, would advance them beyond the nomadic stage, and be an important factor in the economic development of northern Alaska.

On return of the Bureau agent to Washington the matter was brought to the attention of the Commissioner of Education, Dr William T. Harris, who not only endorsed the project but gave it his enthusiastic support. Immediate efforts were made to secure an appropriation from Congress to initiate the undertaking. This proved impossible, however, until 1894 when Congress made its first appropriation of \$6,000, thereby enabling the Bureau to establish the reindeer industry in Alaska on a stable, practical basis.

Pending congressional action an appeal was made to individuals interested, and \$2,000 was raised the first year to begin the experiment. During 1891 and 1892 operations were carried on with funds contributed by philanthropic individuals, with considerable hardship and relatively little success, so far as founding a permanent herd is concerned. However, this experimental period served to prove the feasibility of the project and work began in earnest with the securing of the Federal appropriation in 1894. Annually, for 9 years following, the Revenue Cutter *Bear* carrying representatives of the Bureau of Education, made trips between the Siberian coast and Alaska, purchasing and importing reindeer, and employing herders to assist in establishing stations and taking care of the herds. Serious difficulties and hardships were involved in making the trips and in dealing with the uncivilized Siberians. By persistent effort, however, these difficulties were finally overcome. Annually, increasing success marked the reindeer-purchasing trips, and at the end of the 9-year period more than 1,200 reindeer had been imported, a number of permanent stations located and placed in operation in Alaska, and the industry successfully and permanently established.

Experiments were made during this period with the importation of deer and experienced herders from Lapland as well as from Siberia. A number of Laps were brought over to teach the Alaskans the lore of raising, and especially of driving reindeer. Many of the Laplanders made permanent homes in Alaska and established herds of their own. The Laps were skilled in reindeer driving and under their direction Eskimos were trained as drivers as well as in caring for the herds. Mail routes were established and for a time operated successfully. Indeed, for many years it



was believed that the reindeer would solve transportation problems as well as the food problem in Alaska.

Since the purpose of establishing the reindeer industry was that of securing economic independence for the Eskimos, early arrangements for distributing the deer among natives were made. Several methods were employed. The most effective was that of rewarding apprentices employed at the Government reindeer stations by giving them a certain number of deer each year during their apprenticeship, the number increasing with the length of service.



A Reindeer Team With Its Eskimo Driver.

At the end of a reasonable period each capable apprentice owned a small herd of which he was placed in charge. The natives were permitted also to purchase deer, procuring a given number from Government stations on loan and repaying the Government for them from the increase in the herd loaned. Further distribution among the Eskimos was made possible by promoting the same plan among the mission stations. The missions were loaned reindeer for a stated period as equipment for industrial training of Eskimos, the Government to be repaid by the missions as their herds increased. Apprentices trained at the missions were given the same opportunities to start herds of their own as those trained at the Government stations.

The general supervision of the reindeer herds was one of the duties of the district superintendent of schools. Each herd was under the immediate supervision of the teacher of the local school. Under the direction of the school system the reindeer industry thrived and became an important means of making a living or a source of food for a significant part of the Eskimo population. The industry was carried on under the direction of the Bureau of Education until 1929 when it was transferred to the supervision of the Governor of the Territory. Approximately 600,000 deer were reported preceding the transfer, two-thirds of which were owned by natives. Approximately 13,000 natives were largely dependent on the reindeer industry in 1930, according to a report of the Governor of Alaska, of which number 2,500 owned deer. Fifty-nine herds, varying in size from a few hundred to 30,000, belonged at that time to natives; 19 herds belonged to other than native owners. Teachers were still functioning as reindeer supervisors in 1931, but it was expected to relieve them of this duty as soon as reorganization could be completed.

#### COOPERATIVE STORES

Various other services for the economic welfare of the natives were undertaken by officials of the Bureau. In 1911 the policy of sponsoring cooperative stores conducted by the natives was inaugurated and carried on under direction of the teachers and superintendents over a period of years. The purpose of establishing the stores was to protect the natives from traders who charged exorbitant prices for food and clothing and paid as little as possible for furs and other native products. The Bureau fostered the cooperatives and the teachers and superintendents supervised them. They were, however, owned and managed by the natives.

For years the canning industry has been carried on rather extensively by the Tsimshians on Annette Island, better known as Metlakatla. This community, under the leadership of William Duncan, migrated from British Columbia to Alaska in 1887. In 1891 Congress set aside for its use Metlakatla. A sawmill and stores as well as the cannery are successfully conducted by the natives. Their village includes, besides a creditable schoolhouse



of several rooms, a church, a town hall, a guest house, and many comfortable dwellings.

One of the most successful cooperatives was that carried on at Hydaburg where there is a large and prosperous native community. Other successful ones were rather widely distributed in southeastern Alaska. Those at Klawock and Klukwan were particularly successful and important. Another large one was conducted at Attu in the Aleutian Islands and one on St. Lawrence Island in the Bering Sea. In 1928 cooperative stores were conducted in 17 native villages.

#### MEDICAL SERVICE

When the Bureau of Education began its work with the natives of Alaska practically no medical service was available for the natives in the District. The need of medical treatment available to them without charge was recognized at once by the officials of the Bureau. Epidemics swept the Eskimo villages from time to time. Tuberculosis and other white men's diseases to which the Eskimos had acquired little resistance were proving fatal to large numbers. It became immediately apparent that something had to be done and done at once.

Among the early steps taken to remedy this condition and the usual accompaniment, if not the cause of disease, namely, economic destitution resulting in poor or insufficient food, were first the relief of destitute natives under direction of school officials and from the regular appropriations made for schools. Second, employment by the Bureau of physicians who served also as teachers. In addition, regular practicing physicians who were occasionally located in the vicinity of Eskimo communities were brought into service, usually on contract basis. Medical supplies and medical textbooks were furnished by the Bureau so that teachers were able to help in all but the more serious situations. Such services were necessarily paid for from regular appropriations for education.

In these and other ways the Bureau of Education furnished emergency medical service over a period of years. In the meantime, constant efforts were made by Bureau officials to secure appropriations for a more adequate service. Commissioner

Harris particularly stressed the point in reporting to the Secretary of the Interior. He emphasized the need for supplying medical services in Alaska and especially expressed the hope that "small hospitals or wards can be provided in connection with schools in the remote villages where medical aid cannot otherwise be obtained and that two or three well-equipped hospitals may be established in central locations where regular medical and surgical treatment may be provided and where natives may be trained to serve as nurses in their home communities."

Succeeding reports of the Commissioners of Education over a period of years continued to emphasize the need of more adequate medical service in Alaska and of special appropriations for the purpose. In the meantime, the Bureau continued to furnish medical and sanitary relief and to care for destitute natives from its regular appropriation. In 1911 the Commissioner reports the employment of eight full-time physicians, four contract physicians, four nurses, and two hospital attendants. At this time there were 101 teachers and 3,810 children enrolled. The preceding year a hospital for natives had been established in Juneau and another one in western Alaska at Nushagak. Contractual relations were maintained also at a private hospital at Nome for the treatment of natives. These activities are indicative of the importance attached by Bureau officials to medical service in the furtherance of its educational program.

In 1911 an acute situation developed in Alaska concerned with the prevalence of disease among the natives. At the request of the Secretary of the Interior the Surgeon General detailed a member of the Public Health Service staff to work in Alaska under the direction of the Commissioner of Education. His duties were to supervise medical and surgical relief and sanitation, to study the prevalence of disease in Alaska and conditions which favored its spread, and recommend steps for improving the situation. Dr. Foster, the physician detailed to this service, made a careful survey accompanied by recommendations, among which he advocated the immediate extension of medical work in connection with the school service. More than \$35,000 of the Bureau's allotment for schools in 1911 was spent for medical relief and relief of destitution.



In 1912 a member of the Surgeon General's staff was detailed to service in Alaska for an indefinite period, an arrangement which the Public Health Service has continued up to the present time. His duties included, beside supervision of medical relief, that of instructing the teachers of the public schools on matters pertaining to the sanitary education of the natives, to rendering first aid to injured and sick, and in general to act in an advisory capacity to the superintendents of education in Alaska in all matters pertaining to health and sanitation.

In 1913 and 1914, the Commissioner of Education again emphasized in reports to the Secretary the need for a special appropriation for medical service, stating that: "Continued endeavors to secure a specific appropriation for adequate service have not yet been successful."<sup>3</sup> However, in 1915 the Commissioner reports "partial success" in securing an appropriation of \$25,000 for the purpose indicated. This appropriation, less than one-fifth of the amount requested, was doubled the following year and substantially increased during succeeding years. These appropriations made it possible for the Bureau to establish a permanent health service and greatly to improve and extend it as needs dictated and funds permitted. Hitherto the medical service had been rendered largely at the expense of needed extensions to the school system.

The first special appropriation for medical service of \$25,000 was supplemented from the regular appropriation to the extent of approximately \$20,000 during the fiscal year. At the close of the year four hospitals were in operation including the large hospital at Juneau, improved and enlarged during the year, and three smaller ones at Nulato, Kotzebue, and Kanakanak.

The plan of contracting with private hospitals and physicians for the care and treatment of native Alaskans was continued and extended during the following years. Teachers and nurses stationed in the villages in connection with the schools continued to minister to natives in remote places and to administer aid to natives for relief of minor ailments. The medical boat, referred to elsewhere, served thousands of natives living along the Yukon River or accessible to it through its many small tributaries.

<sup>3</sup> Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1914.

Increased appropriations resulted in enlarging and improving the service along established lines. New hospitals were built and established ones improved or enlarged, or both. In 1930 the appropriation was \$172,000. The Alaskan service maintained seven hospitals at that time, each in charge of physicians with a staff of nurses; three small hospitals with a capacity of six beds each in charge of nurses, and employed several part-time physicians. Service was provided also from Federal funds for natives at seven private hospitals, including two in Washington and one in Oregon.

#### PRESENT SITUATION IN EDUCATION FOR NATIVES

Transfer of the responsibility for education and medical service for natives of Alaska from the Office of Education, formerly the Bureau of Education, to the Office of Indian Affairs, both located in the Department of the Interior, was consummated in March 1931. The staff in Washington and the staff in Alaska were transferred from one office to the other with no fundamental changes in policy and without interruption to the regular work as it had been carried on during the years immediately preceding the transfer under direction of the Office of Education.

The Office of Indian Affairs is the organization which has charge of all types of Federal service, educational, welfare, legal, business, economic, and the like, to the Indians living in the States. It has an organization which has been developed for the purpose of promoting its functions over a long period of years. Because of the similarity of work with the natives in Alaska to that carried on with Indians in the States, it seemed logical that such a transfer would be in the interest of economy and a step in the direction of better coordination of Federal Government activities concerned with indigenous groups in the States and in the Territory of Alaska.

At the present time the Alaskan service includes beside the staff in the Washington office a resident director of education for Alaska, an assistant director of education with a staff and headquarters in the Federal Building at Juneau. For local administration the Territory is divided into districts, each in charge of a superintendent under whose immediate supervision there are from 15 to 25 schools and from 25 to 53 teachers.



Support for the Service is, as in the past, through congressional appropriations. The amount appropriated for 1935 was as follows: Education, \$572,600; medical service, \$271,330. The system continues to grow in extent and efficiency and to progress along modern lines. The enrollment increases somewhat and the average daily attendance improves from year to year, leaving, however, much to be desired, particularly in attendance. For the school year 1935-36, the schools enrolled 4,299 children, employed a teaching staff of 186. During this year 99 day or village schools, 2 residential schools, and 1 school for the blind were maintained. Of the 186 teachers, 24 were selected from the native race, continuing the policy established many years ago of recruiting the staff of teachers and nurses from among the natives whenever possible.

The long-established policy of conducting day schools as community schools for both children and adults continues with modifications to new situations and new needs as they develop. The typical school is located in the heart of a native village, the site includes a school building proper, the teacher's cottage or quarters for the teacher as a part of the school building itself, a home for the physician or nurse or both depending on the size of the community, and, in strategic centers, a small hospital in charge of the nurse. Every school is a medical center. If no physician or nurse is in residence the teacher dispenses medical aid, generally including simple remedies, first-aid material and services, and acts as health and sanitation advisor as well as teacher. Teachers also distribute food and clothing to indigent natives, when necessity dictates, a service which is often of great importance in Alaska. Because of severe weather conditions or other inevitable difficulties concerned with living conditions peculiar to primitive and semiprimitive living, the usual food supply can no longer be replenished through hunting and fishing as readily as it could be in the early days in Alaska.

The schools are centers of economic, social, and recreational life in the native communities. To an extent scarcely realized among persons living under highly civilized conditions the schools aim to fill all kinds of important needs in native life. Carpentry shops are maintained extensively in connection with

the schools; even those in small communities. The objective is not alone the teaching of youth but, what is considered of equal importance, that of inspiring the desire for and assisting in the building and furnishing of better native homes. Along the rivers where motorboats are necessary the school shops teach the adult natives as well as the youth to build boats, repair and maintain gas engines, and the like. Usually school shops are open to adults as well as children throughout the day and evening and the teacher is available to help in practical, everyday problems of native life. Teaching community sanitation and assisting



A "Chilkat" Blanket Shown by Students at the Eklutna School.

in cleaning and keeping clean native villages is another function which the schools and their teachers are expected to perform. Many achieve real success in this undertaking.

Improved homemaking and homekeeping is one of the important objectives of the village schools. Both by precept and example the teacher and teacher's home aim to instruct the natives in the essentials of healthful living. Not only is the teacher's home a gathering place for social recreation among the natives but it serves also in the capacity of a demonstration center where the natives may observe life under civilized conditions and see actual examples of comfort and convenience which they are encouraged to emulate. The teacher's kitchen or the



schoolhouse kitchen in the larger schools is a laboratory in a very real sense which offers practical lessons in selection and preparation of food to both children and adults.

The schools also assist the natives with their economic problems in whatever form they arise. While actual responsibility formerly assigned school officials in connection with the reindeer industry was transferred to Territorial officials, the schools continue to be centers for advice and assistance in raising and marketing of reindeer as in other native ventures in business, farming, and the like.

The policy inaugurated early in the history of the Alaskan school system of basing the curricular offerings on the practical needs of life under conditions existing there continues. The economic situation among natives becomes more rather than less acute with the years as contacts with civilization increase and the natural food supply decreases. Employment in vocations adapted to the white population is difficult for natives to secure and retain. The importance of an educational program adapted to particular needs becomes more and more apparent. The large aims of the schools are, therefore, to give natives a working knowledge of English, to improve their economic efficiency, and to promote better standards of living during the long period of adjustment to the necessity of living and making a living in increasingly closer contact with conditions of civilized life. Health, hygiene, and sanitation, instruction in practical homemaking in its various branches, are important contributors to these aims and are included in the program of all Alaska's schools. Adaptations to conditions which differ among localities are illustrated by the emphasis placed on promoting gardens and teaching how to cultivate them in communities where gardening is feasible. Seeds are furnished to natives for home gardens and schools demonstrate the raising of such varieties of vegetables as thrive under local conditions. In communities visited by tourists such as Ketchikan and Cordova and in those in which native materials are available as, for example, ivory in the vicinity of Nome, the schools teach native arts and crafts. They also encourage production of materials among the adults of other communities and help them to establish shops for their profitable sale.

Two boarding schools are now maintained, one at Eklutna in the interior, and one at Wrangell along the southeastern coast. They offer training in the industries suited to Alaskan environment and the ability of the natives, and aim to prepare leaders and to improve standards of living. Both offer practical training in homemaking, cooking, sewing, and home crafts such as blanket and basket weaving for girls.

The school at Eklutna is located in an agricultural district. It therefore emphasizes farming and maintains a school farm.



A Chicken House on the School Farm at Eklutna.

Vegetables and chickens, cows, and other animals are raised on the farm. Besides being used for demonstration and teaching purposes the farm also contributes to the food served at the school. Mechanics and machine shop work of different kinds such as boat building, operation and repair of gas engines, are taught, as are tanning, taxidermy, business methods, and clerical work.

Wrangell Institute is located where important fishing industries have been developed, especially in connection with salmon. Special courses concerned with the life and procuring of salmon, with canning, preserving, and marketing it, are offered in this school. Salmon is one of the most important sources of revenue



as well as of food among the natives who live along the coast. The school is, therefore, proving of particular value in promoting their economic welfare.

Progress is being made also in improving instruction and curriculum adaptations in two important directions: First, through raising the qualifications of teachers entering the service; second, through summer conferences of teachers. Appointments to vacancies in schools for natives are now made through the United States Civil Service Commission. Appointees will hereafter be required to be graduates of a recognized university or college offering a 4-year course including education. Applicants must also be citizens of the United States. In order that native young men and women may continue to be eligible for teaching positions educational loans are made available to promising young native candidates to enable them to attend higher institutions of learning and prepare themselves for teaching positions. During the school year 1935-36, eight native students were attending five different higher institutions of learning preparing for teaching service, their expenses being met in part from this loan fund. It is expected that the number will increase as the years go on.

During the summer of 1934 a conference of teachers and school officials from the Seward Peninsula and the northwestern District of Alaska was held at Nome. A demonstration school was conducted in connection with the conference. A similar conference for the teachers of the central District was held in 1935 at the Eklutna School. In both conferences the University of Alaska at Fairbanks participated actively through its extension division.

Owing to the peculiar situation existing in Alaska, the relative isolation, pioneer living conditions, and the like, married couples, both of whom teach or one of whom is a teacher and one a social worker or skilled in the manual and industrial arts or in other practical occupations, are usually well adapted to and find a compensating life work in the Alaskan schools. However, unmarried teachers of both sexes are employed in perhaps as many cases as are married couples. Many of the teachers of Alaska are intensely interested in the social and economic welfare of the natives and are students of indigenous folk ways and traditions and have worked successfully many years in the Alaskan service.

As a rule, teachers have been eminently successful in making their homes as well as the schools, centers to which adults and children look for out-of-school as well as in-school help toward improvement of homemaking and for leadership in their economic and industrial life.



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